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ABSTRACT

These summaries of research relating to child welfare are intended to give sufficient information about the objectives, methods, and findings of each research project to enable the reader to judge whether the full report would be of interest. Bibliographical references are included with each summary. Summaries encompass the areas of adoption practices, foster care programs, residential treatment of emotionally disturbed children, day care projects, behavior disorders of children, and salaries and personnel. The introduction to the report ranks types of problems handled by voluntary and public agencies. Child neglect or abuse ranked first in public agencies, followed by emotional or behavioral difficulties. The voluntary agencies' primary service orientations were toward illegitimate births and adoption. (KG)

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CHILD WELFARE RESEARCH

Summaries of Research Conducted at the Child Welfare League of America

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Introduction

For many years the Child Welfare League of America has been active in conducting, promoting and disseminating research relevant to child welfare. From periodic collection of information of such matters as salaries and board rates for foster care and occasional special studies, the League moved into a continuous program of research, with the appointment of Martin Wolins as its first research director in 1956. The research program was subsequently directed by David Fanshel (1959-1962), Bernice Boehm (1962-1965) and Ralph W. Colvin (1965-1968). The writer assumed the position of research director in mid-1968.

The number of studies carried out directly by CWLA or under its auspices is now sufficiently large that it has seemed desirable to draw together in one place for easy reference brief summaries of its completed research. This compilation was prepared primarily for the use of League staff. We have, however, been encouraged to make it available to the field, because of its possible interest to agency personnel, to faculty in schools of social work and to child welfare researchers wherever they may be based.

The intent of the summaries is to give enough information about the objectives, methods and findings of each research project for the reader to judge whether he will find the full report relevant to his concerns. Full bibliographical references are given at the end of each summary. The summaries were prepared by Maxine S. Frohwein, Research Assistant in the CWLA Research Center, and whenever feasible they were reviewed by the research directors of the projects reported. The studies are grouped under general subject headings and presented chronologically within each topic.

The program of research reported here has been supported in part by the regular operating funds of the League but in large part by grants from private foundations and from the U. S. Children's Bureau. It has been greatly facilitated by the leadership and encouragement given by the League's Executive Director, Joseph H. Reid, the interest and support of League staff, and the cooperation of the many agencies and individuals that have participated in it.

CWLA research is, of course, but a small part of child welfare research. Not only is research accumulating at a rapid pace butso too are the abstracting services to which one may turn for information about pertinent work. Particular attention is called to Research Relating to Children, published by the U. S. Children's Bureau, Abstracts for Social Workers, published by the National Association of Social Workers, and the National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information, which provides on request abstracts relating to given areas of inquiry.*

Ann W. Shyne
Director of Research

* For fuller information on abstracts publications, see W. J. Reid, A Social Worker's Guide to Abstracts Publications (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1968).

CHILD WELFARE -- NEEDS AND SERVICES

Children, Problems and Services

This study represents the first attempt to examine on a nationwide basis the types of problems precipitating need for various child welfare services. Public agencies studied either their entire caseload or a representative sample on one day, including 49,838 from a total of 377,000 children. Voluntary agencies were represented by members of CWLA (127 agencies), including 12,368 cases, a random sample from about 49,000 children. Results are presented separately for the two types of agencies and represent associations among types of problems and services and various characteristics of the children, e.g., race, age, marital status of parents, living arrangements, etc. Variations between public and voluntary agencies and among states are discussed.

"Neglect, abuse or exploitation" was the most prevalent problem leading to requests for child welfare services. However, it ranked first in frequency in public agencies and third in occurrence in voluntary agencies. The highest amount of correspondence between type of problem and type of service occurred for these children, the majority being helped through protective services. Out-of-wedlock birth was the principal presenting problem in voluntary agencies. Child's emotional or behavioral difficulties ranked second in both types of agencies. Parental illness was the third most frequently occurring problem in public agencies.

Adoptive services accounted for only ten per cent of the public agency's caseloads whereas almost one-third of the cases in voluntary agencies were receiving this type of service. The children served by public agencies in adoptive homes were mainly those born out-of-wedlock (63%), but they also included neglected children and children in need of guardianship. Their median age was two years, but one-quarter were older than five years. Eighteen per cent were non-white. Voluntary agencies provided services in adoptive homes to even larger proportions of children born out-of-wedlock (88%), and they were generally younger (median age = one year), with many being under six months old. Twelve percent were non-white.

Large proportions of children served by public and voluntary agencies were in foster care or receiving foster care services. The public agencies provided foster care for 47% of their cases, 35% in foster homes and 12% in institutions for dependent and neglected children or for delinquent children. Of the 45% of the children in foster care provided by voluntary agencies, 30% were in foster homes and 14% were in institutions for dependent and neglected children or in residential treatment centers. Public agencies provided foster care for a greater proportion of non-white children (25%) than did voluntary agencies (18%), and both principally served children from broken homes or children whose parents were not married. For two-thirds of the children served by public agencies and half of the children served by voluntary agencies, the only plan was continuation in foster care. Small proportions of children who left foster care were given after-care services, but there were about 18,000 of these children in the agencies studied.

The specific service provided to the largest proportion of children was casework to those in foster care. The second largest service provided by voluntary agencies was preadoptive supervision. Public agencies also served substantial proportions through casework with children with behavioral or adjustment problems and through protective services.

Forty-four percent of the children served by public child welfare agencies were living with one or both parents or relatives, while only 27% of the children served by voluntary agencies were in this category. The marital status of the parents varied for public and voluntary agencies, the latter serving more children whose parents were not married to each other, the former serving more children whose parents were divorced, separated, or deserted. About a quarter of the parents were married and living together.

The principal sources of referral for child welfare services were social agencies including another unit of the same agency (public - 30%, voluntary - 44%); courts, probation officers, or police (public - 33%, voluntary - 11%); parents (public - 18%, voluntary - 26%); and unrelated persons (public - 10%, voluntary - 13%).

Jeter, H. R., Children, Problems, and Services in Child Welfare Programs, Children's Bureau Publication No. 403 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963), 284 pp.

ADOPTION

A Study of Adoption Practice

A Study of Adoption Practice, Volumes I and III, reported the results of a nationwide survey on adoption practices which preceded the National Conference on Adoption in 1955. Volume II is a compilation of selected scientific papers presented at the Conference. The purpose of the entire Adoption Project was to examine current knowledge and practices in the field of adoption and to analyze the validity of these practices from the viewpoints of the many related disciplines. It was hoped that more uniform and improved practices and standards would result.

Volume I discusses the responses of 270 agencies (205 voluntary and 65 public) to a questionnaire on their adoption practices, opinions, and existing community provisions. The material reported in Volume III is a supplement to Volume I based on the responses of 250 agencies (184 voluntary and 66 public) to questions regarding their attitudes, practices and problems in serving children with special needs. In addition, separate questionnaires were completed on a random sample of 250 children served by these agencies.

About half of the children placed by the agencies were born out-of-wedlock. The requirements determining the eligibility of a child for an agency's adoption service were becoming more flexible, but most agencies still had restrictions regarding age, religion, race, residence, mental status, physical status, etc. These restrictions were more likely to result from lack of adoptive homes for these children than from their being unacceptable for adoption.

Adoption services were inadequately serving the needs of minority groups. Non-white children, in particular, had less opportunity for adoption than white children. There were wide variations in the quality and quantity of services to unmarried mothers, especially Negro unmarried mothers.

Agencies received many more applications for children than they had time to evaluate and many more than the number of children available. Less than one quarter of the adoptive applicants were approved during the study year, but many underwent study the following year and were subsequently approved. The most frequent reason for a couple's not getting a child was the shortage of healthy, white infants. More than a third of the applicants were not accepted at intake because of failure to meet certain agency requirements, but almost a third of these couples were referred to other agencies. There were wide variations in time to complete a home study ranging from three months to three years. Agencies reported increased use of group interviews for screening applicants.

The legal aspects of adoption resulted in problems for many agencies. Wide variations among states and communities existed, especially in legal interpretation and legal jurisdiction. Revision of present laws was advocated for consent and surrender provisions, social study, agency authority, court jurisdiction, and independent adoptions. Agencies favored eliminating independent adoptions altogether, which constituted 45% of all unrelated adoptions at

the time of the study. The remedies suggested for eliminating them included improved legislation, expansion of agency adoptive services, and more public education regarding agency programs.

The survey revealed the need for better and more uniform standards, more trained social workers, better public relations programs, and greater cooperation among agencies. Further, reduction in the time between application and placement of a child was indicated as well as greater flexibility of requirements to recruit more homes for "hard-to-place" children. Implications and suggestions for research are discussed in the concluding chapter.

For purposes of this study, children with special needs included those who were older, physically handicapped, or from minority or mixed racial backgrounds. These characteristics are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, the adoption of an older child may have been hindered when he was still younger as the result of his minority ethnicity of physical handicap.

Descriptive material about these children ranged from race and religion to health and family status. More than half were infants born out-of-wedlock. They had varying histories of agency care; one third had been under agency care for less than a year; more than half had spent from one to five years under agency care; and more than one-tenth had experienced agency care for five to eleven years. In other words, many of these children had been living without permanent families for most of their lives. Limited information was available regarding their natural parents, especially the father.

The adoptive parents are discussed in detail. An increasing number were willing to provide homes for children who are less than perfect, but many more homes were still needed. Agencies were becoming more flexible in their eligibility requirements for adoptive parents of children with special needs. Many felt that special programs, state clearinghouses, and a national clearinghouse would facilitate placement of these children.

Shapiro, Michael, A Study of Adoption Practice - Adoption Agencies and the Children They Serve, Vol. I (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1956), 152 pp.

_____, A Study of Adoption Practice - Adoption of Children with Special Needs, Vol. III (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1957), 55 pp.

Selection of Adoptive Parents

This study examined the reliability of caseworkers' judgments of the suitability of five prospective adoptive couples for normal, white infants. After listening to taped intake interviews, 184 workers from 28 agencies indicated whether they would begin a home study or terminate the case, and also rated each couple on a number of factors. The interviews covered such topics as the couple's interest in children, prior experience with children, general life experience, marital history, etc.

The criterion for a "correct" decision was the consensus of a majority of the 184 workers. A statistically significant level of agreement was reached, although there were differences in the degree of agreement on various couples. These differences were not related to workers' job level (supervisor vs. caseworker), amount of experience, sex, or marital status. There were wide inter-agency variations among workers and to a lesser extent intra-agency variations.

While listening to the taped interviews, the workers wrote comments on the corresponding transcripts of the interviews. Analysis of their notes revealed that the worker forms a general impression of a couple during the first half of the interview that strongly influences the final decision.

Since disagreements about acceptance of a particular couple may result from differential sifting out of information considered important, Brieland believes that staff development programs, including discussions of judgment criteria and replications of the present experiment, might prove worthwhile. They could possibly decrease instances of an applicant's being accepted by one worker and rejected by another worker as occurred in this study. He also comments that, although intake interview should focus more on suitability for the parental role and related factual information than on depth personality diagnosis, standardization is desirable only within limits.

Brieland, D., An Experimental Study of the Selection of Adoptive Parents at Intake (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1959), 112 pp.

_____ "Practices in selecting Adoptive Parents," Child Welfare, XXXVIII, No. 5 (1959), pp. 24-25.

_____ "The Selection of Adoptive Parents at Intake" in Casework Papers 1960 from the National Conference on Social Welfare (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1960), pp. 86-94.

Trends in Adoption

Questionnaires on adoption were sent to 1244 agencies identified through state departments of public welfare as providing adoption services, inquiring into their experience over the five-year period from 1958 to 1962.

According to the responses of 216 agencies (116 voluntary and 100 public) that were able to furnish complete data, there were general upward trends from 1958 to 1962 in the number of adoptive applications, homes approved, placements made, adoptions completed, and the number of children available for adoption. However, there was a decline in the ratio of applications to the number of children available for adoption. The rise in illegitimate births was largely responsible for the increased number of children available.

Although voluntary agencies had larger numbers of applications, homes approved, placements made, and adoptions completed than did public agencies, they experienced a greater decline in applications relative to the number of children available. Regional differences were also reported. The Pacific region showed the sharpest upward trends for all five variables, and the New England region had the highest ratio of applications to children available for adoption.

Since adoptive homes could not be found for many children, agencies were beginning to modify some of their practices. Many were shortening the time between the various steps of adoption. Requirements pertaining to age, length of marriage, religion, etc., were becoming less stringent. The agencies stated that lack of experienced staff and lack of funds were the principal stumbling blocks to increasing adoptive placements.

(The report of a follow-up of this study, covering the period from 1962 to 1967, will be available in 1969.)

Hylton, Lydia, "Trends in Adoption -- 1958-1962," Child Welfare, XLIV, No. 7 (1965), pp. 377-386.

Caseworkers' Perceptions of Adoptive Applicants

An exploratory research study carried out between 1961 and 1964 examined the following questions: 1) What are the implicit criteria used by adoption workers in their assessment of the adoptive applicants in the sample as prospects for adoptive parenthood? 2) Are caseworker perceptions in this evaluation process of a discrete variety or of a global nature? 3) Do adoption workers have various applicant models for different groups of children? 4) Do the adoption facilities in the study differ in their assessment tendencies with regard to the underlying perceptual dimensions of applicant evaluation? 5) What are some of the characteristics of the study sample of applicants, adoption workers, and the children placed with accepted couples? 6) What are some applicant attributes or attitudes that are perceived as positive or negative in caseworkers' overall assessments of applicant couples, and/or differentiate between the accepted and rejected group in the study sample?

Eighty-seven adoption workers from eight agencies in an eastern metropolitan area filled out an extensive rating form on 398 couples who had applied for adoption and had atleast one interview. In addition the adoption worker was asked to fill out a shortform when the outcome of the case was known. Each participating worker also completed a self-descriptive form during the course of the study.

Relationships between the descriptive characteristics of the couples (e.g., age, race, religion, education, income, marital history, infertility, etc.) and the two dependent variables (caseworkers' general impression of couples as prospects for adoptive parenthood and the outcomes of the couples' applications) are discussed in detail. Impression of the couple and outcome of the application were found to be highly related. Irrespective of descriptive characteristics, the majority of appicants were accepted but there were differences from agency to agency in proportion accepted. Although most of the applicants represented initial requests for adoption, it was more likely that reapplicants would be accepted. Another finding was related to race. A larger percentage of white couples were accepted than of Negro couples, but the percentage of Negroes who withdrew and had been judged good propects was higher than the percentage of white couples in this category. This finding has implications for caseworkers' handling of Negro applicants in view of the shortage of suitable Negro adoptive homes.

To determine the basic underlying dimensions of caseworkers' perceptions of adoptive applicants, a factor analytic technique was utilized which resulted in 41 usable clusters derived from the 290 original variables. These, in turn, were factor analyzed and yielded three clusters: Factor I - "Positive Psychosocial Appraisal"; Factor II - "Suitability for Deviant Child"; Factor III - "Young Marriage." Factors I and II were highly stable whereas Factor III was only moderately stable.

The three factors were related to the caseworker's general impression and to agency outcome to varying degrees: Factor I was highly related; Factor II was moderately related; and Factor III was negligibly related. Factor I, "Positive Psychosocial Appraisal", was considered to be a global appraisal

related to a couple's openness and communicativeness. Factors I and II were negatively correlated with each other and positively correlated with caseworkers' general impressions. In other words, couples rated high on "Positive Psychosocial Aprraisal" and low on "Suitability for Deviant Child" were considered good prospects for normal children. On the other hand, couples rated low on "Positive Psychosocial Appraisal" and high on "Suitability for Deviant Child" were marginal couples considered good prospects for deviant children.

With regard to agency differences, four agencies, all private, gave higher ratings on "Suitability for Deviant Child" and lower ratings on "Positive Psychosocial Appraisal"; the other four agencies, three public and one private, showed the reverse pattern.

Two shorter sections of the report deal with characteristics of the caseworkers and characteristics of the children placed. The children tended to be quite young (median age was 4.7 months), and the adoption process from first interview to actual placement took a median time of 7.9 months, with wide variations across agencies.

Bradley, T., "An Exploration of Caseworkers' Perceptions of Adoptive Applicants," Child Welfare, XLV, No. 8 (1966), pp. 433-443.

_____, An Exploration of Caseworkers' Perceptions of Adoptive Applicants, (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1967), 225 pp.

A Follow-Up Study in Adoption

One hundred families were interviewed about the development and long-term adjustment of the children they had adopted 20-30 years previously (1931-40) through four New York City agencies. The purpose of this follow-up study was to facilitate the development of knowledge that can serve as a guide to adoption agencies in their current practice.

Both parents were interviewed independently as well as together by a trained, experienced caseworker-interviewer. The interviews, which were taped, were informal and unstructured, although the interviewer used a 36-page outline as a guide. They were subsequently coded from the tapes by a modified content analytic procedure and analyzed quantitatively. Further material was obtained from an attitude questionnaire, judgments of interviewers, and, to a lesser extent, case records. (Problems in attempting to interview the adoptees are discussed. A separate report is being prepared based on interviews with 33 of the adoptees.)

The characteristics of the families and other findings of the study are compared for three groups representing the overall outcome of the adoption experience: "low-problem," "middle," and "high-problem." These groups are based on rank ordering of Summated Profile Scores derived from a broad array of variables dealing with the adoptees' personal and social adjustment and the families' overall experiences with adoption.

Distinctive differences were noted between the adoptees in the most problematic and least problematic outcome groups with respect to levels of educational performance, manifestations of personality disturbance, and the quality of family relationships. Favorable outcome scores in these areas were associated with "low-problem" adoption experience.

The authors examined the interrelationships between the characteristics of the adoptees at placement and the characteristics of their adoptive parents. Contrary to expectations, there was no significant correlation between the age of applicant couples and the age of the children placed with them. On the other hand, there was a negative relationship between socioeconomic status and the age of the adoptee at placement, and between socioeconomic status and motivation to adopt on the part of one or both partners.

Certain aspects of the adoptive experience itself were examined. The authors devoted particular attention to the parents' reports of their attitudes and behavior with respect to child-rearing practices and the revelation of the adoption story, because the conceptualization underlying their study led them to consider these aspects of adoptive family life as among the most central and revealing. All but four of the adoptees had been informed of their adoptive status, but the issue had not been widely discussed or alluded to in most of the families. Adoptees who showed marked curiosity about their biological background tended to manifest a more problematic adjustment. The perception of the adoptive parents was that the nature, timing, and content of the revelation of adoptive status was not related in any major way to the adoptees' subsequent adjustment. The large majority of parents reported that

neither they nor their children had encountered any problems over the years that they could attribute directly to the fact of adoption.

One of the major concepts explored in this study was the adoptive parents' feelings of entitlement to the adopted child, which may be affected by self-doubt associated with the problem of infertility. The authors conceived of the parent's child-rearing practices as one indicator of his sense of rightful possession of the child. Based on their reports of these practices, the parents of the "high-problem" adoptees gave the general impression of having experienced less of a sense of entitlement than did the parents of the adoptees in the other two groups.

The authors also identified a number of interrelationships among the personal and demographic characteristics of the families, their manner of dealing with revelation of adoptive status, their child-rearing practices and other environmental variables that may have influenced the nature of the adoptive experience.

The data indicated a high degree of consistency in the adoptive parents' overall orientation to the various aspects of their children's upbringing. This was particularly evident in the marked similarity of their approaches to the problems of revelation of adoptive status and to a variety of child-rearing tasks.

Finally, the authors examined the factors that were associated with the kinds of adjustment evidenced by the adoptees, that is, adjustment in terms of the presence or absence of problems over the years in the adoptees' major life-space areas. Contrary to expectations, both the number of temporary pre-adoptive placements experienced by the adoptees and their age at the time they were placed were very weakly related to their subsequent adjustment. The adoptees placed with families already containing one or more children were more likely to have made a less problematic adjustment than were children placed with childless couples. Unexpectedly, socioeconomic status was only a weak indicator of how adoptees would tend to fare in later years. There were some associations between child-rearing practices and subsequent adjustment but these were only moderately definitive.

Jaffee, B. and Fanshel, D., A Follow-Up Study in Adoption: Portrait of One Hundred Families, (New York: Columbia University Press, in press).

FOSTER CARE

Board Rates for Foster Care

CWLA has periodically conducted studies of board rates paid to foster parents by member agencies. In the last survey (1969) a random sample of 40 member agencies participated. The author stressed the importance of viewing board rates in terms of the increasing demands made upon foster parents as participants in a treatment plan for the child and/or his natural family. Board rates also influence the recruitment of foster parent applicants.

The median rate in 1959 was $52 per month with a range of $35 to $82 in contrast to a median of $45 in 1954 with a range of $25 to $70 per month. In addition, many agencies reimbursed foster parents for haircuts, medical and dental supplies, school supplies, shoe repairs, carefare, etc. One third of the agencies were in communities that supported uniform rates. Half of the agencies reported that almost half of the natural parents contributed nothing for the foster care of their children.

Board rates increased as the cost of living rose, but not proportionally, and as the result of dissatisfaction expressed by foster parents. Higher rates sometimes as great as three times the basic rate, but often only minimally higher, were paid for the care of problem children, i.e., physically handicapped, emotionally disturbed, etc.

Gordon, H., A Study of Board Rates (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1942, Special Bulletin), 22 pp.

_____, Board Rates in 1943 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1944, Special Bulletin), 9 pp.

Herzig, M., Board Rates - 1946 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1947, Special Bulletin), 19 pp.

Gordon, H., Board Rates - 1948 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1949, Special Bulletin), 20 pp.

_____, "Board Rates in 1948," Child Welfare, XXVIII, No. 2 (1949), pp. 14-15

_____, Board Rates in 1951 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1952), 36 pp.
Board Rates in 1954 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1956) 19 pp.

Gordon H., "Board Rates," Child Welfare, XXXVIII, No. 3 (1959), pp. 23-26

Deterrents to the Adoption of Children in Foster Care

The purpose of this pilot study was to determine the reasons why so many children permanently deprived of parental ties remain in foster care rather than being adopted. A comparison between two samples of children in an urban, New England community revealed significant differences between those currently in foster care where no contact has been maintained with their own parents and those placed in adoptive homes within the past year. The likelihood of a child's being adopted decreased if any of the following held true: older than one year; non-white; less than average intelligence; less than adequate physical health; and presence of emotional problems. Regarding family background, children currently in foster care in contrast to those in adoptive homes came from large, multi-problem families at various states of social disorganization. The parents were rarely the source of the placement request and did not participate in the foster care planning. The extend and quality of casework with these children and parents were limited.

Derivation of adoptability scores weighted according to the presence or absence of the various deterrents to adoption (age, emotional adjustments, health, race, intelligence) resulted in overlapping scores for the two groups. However, most the children in foster care received scores in the lower ranges and children in adoptive homes scored in the higher ranges.

The two groups were much less divergent at initial agency contact, but as time elapsed a greater percentage of the children became "hard-to-place." In other words, earlier and more effective planning could possibly have prevented many children from becoming "hard-to-place."

Boehm, B., Deterrents to the Adoption of Children in Foster Care (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1958), 39 pp.

_____, "Deterrents to the Adoption of Children in Foster Care," Child Welfare, XXXVII, No. 7 (1958), pp. 20-24.

Children in Need of Parents

Maas and Engler studied the 4281 dependent and neglected children who were in agency-supervised foster care in nine counties on April 1, 1957, or had moved into or left foster care during the three months preceding or following the target date. Of these, 882 were selected for more intensive analysis. The nine counties varied widely in size, location, economy, and culture. A major focus of the study was the deterrents to adoption for many children in foster care. Two research teams, each consisting of a child welfare worker and sociologist, interviewed social workers, judges, and other informants and analyzed case records in order to ascertain the characteristics of the children and their parents and variations among the counties in placement facilities, legal systems, and cooperation among agencies. Each county was considered as a distinct socio-cultural entity whose prevailing social and cultural patterns and attitudes influenced the quantity and quality of foster care. Hypotheses derived from examining eight of the counties were tested on the ninth one.

Children were placed in foster care more often for social and/or psychological reasons than for economic reasons. Marital breakdown was the most prevalent reason followed by mental or physical illness of a parent, neglect, abandonment, death of a parent, inadequate income, and poor housing. The majority of children were voluntarily separated from their parents. Involuntary separation was more likely than voluntary separation to be precipitated by marital breakdown.

Foster family homes provided foster care for the largest proportion of these children, but many were placed in institutions and about one-fifth were living in adoptive homes. However, the communities differed markedly -- one community placed 90% of its children in institutions whereas another community of comparable size proveded foster family homes for 85% of its children.

All 60 child placement agencies serving the nine counties participated in the study. It was found that a collaborative network of agencies in a county result in greater efficiency in the placement of children. They were able to provide more services, and, in particular, more adoptive homes. Staff training and work loads also affected the service given.

The laws pertaining to legal custody, guardianship, and other aspects of adoption, in conjunction with the way they were interpreted, influenced the patterns of foster care. Some communities emphasized protection of the rights of children whereas others favored parents' rights. These differences in orientation influenced the placement of children.

Time was found to be a crucial factor in determining the course of a child's foster care. A child in foster care for more than a year and a half was less likely to return home or to be adopted and more likely to remain in foster care indefinitely. A child had a greater chance of returning home if he was placed in the same community where his parents resided. The 20% for whom adoption became a reality were predominantly white, healthy

babies under two years old and born out-of-wedlock. Most of the children in this study had been in foster care for two to five years. Those who had any one of the following characteristics were more likely to remain in foster care rather than to be adopted: emotional disturbance, severe physical handicap, dull-normal or retarded intelligence, or membership in a minority ethnic group. Emotional disturbance was more closely associated with frequent changes of placement than with merely being in foster care for a long period of time. Many children had moved two, three, or more times.

The children who remained in foster care indefinitely fell into three categories:

1) the ones who were separated from multi-problem, hard-core families.

2) the ones separated as a result of the death or physical illness of a parent or economic hardship. These children were more often placed in institutions and their parent(s) occasionally visited them.

3) the children born out-of-wedlock and often of minority ethnicity.

The parents who adopted the white, healthy infants came from stable, middle-class backgrounds whereas the adoptive parents of "hard-to-place" children were more often from the blue collar strata of society.

Fanshel and Maas further analyzed data on the sub-sample of 882 cases from the Maas and Engler study, Children in Need of Parents, to determine the factors related to a child's remaining in foster care, returning home or being adopted, and to his overall adjustment. They factor-analyzed 40 variables related to the child's placement experience, his characteristics, and the characteristics of his family. Factors were derived separately for the children experiencing four placement outcomes: foster family home, institution, adoption, and return home.

Long-term care with many moves and the associated confusion in self-identity were characteristic of all children except the adopted ones. The latter were represented by only one cluster of variables associated with being an out-of-wedlock infant. Children who returned home were distinguished by such precipitating reasons for placement as death or illness of a parent.

There was much overlap in the nine clusters describing children in foster family homes and the seven clusters representing children in institutions. Marital disruption of varying degrees and economic need precipitated both types of placement. Emotionally disturbed children of low intelligence were more likely to be placed in foster homes whereas physically disabled children and non-white, out-of-wedlock children were more likely to experience institutional placement.

Children in Need of Parents (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1960), 22 pp.

Engler, R., "Some Highlights of the Foster Care Project: Part II," Child Welfare, XXXVIII, No. 8 (1959), pp. 1-4.

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Maas, H. and Engler, R., Children in Need of Parents (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), 448 pp.

Purvine, M., "Highlights of the Foster Care Project: Part III, the Legal System and Child Placement," Child Welfare, XXXVIII, No. 9 (1959), pp. 25-28.

Selecting Foster Parents

The aim of this study was to clarify the decision-making process in the selection of foster parents. Variables utilized in the ranking of foster parent applicants were identified and tested in a series of related projects.

When caseworkers were asked to rank foster families on the basis of selective reduction of material from case records, volume of material and reliability of worker judgment were almost inversely proportional. Thus, highest agreement was achieved when rankings were based upon case records reduced to 40% of their original length. Reliability was also associated with type of experience. The highest intra-agency and inter-agency agreement was attained by those people actually engaged in making such decisions, i.e., homefinders and supervisors.

The case study outline that had guided selective case record reduction was modified. The new "schema" aided caseworkers in sifting out crucial material from case records, but interworker reliability of case rankings increased only after extended training. The "schema" was further developed into an attitude questionnaire with items grouped into 12 scales incorporating characteristics of "good" foster parents. This instrument was presented to workers, foster parents, and foster parent applicants.

Three hundred and forty-three caseworkers in eight county welfare departments completed the questionnaire as they thought the "best" foster parents and the "poorest" foster parents would respond. Four of the 12 scales discriminated between ideally good and ideally poor foster parents.

When 1078 foster parents rated by their caseworkers as "superior," "adequate" or "inferior" filled out the questionnaire, their responses did not coincide with the response patterns of ideally good and ideally poor foster parents. Reasons for nonimplementation of ideals are discussed, e.g., workers' biases, shortages of foster homes, etc.

In the four counties where implementation of ideals was high, further examination revealed that selected variables did discriminate among "superior," "adequate," and "inferior" foster families.

Finally, 628 applicant families filled out the questionnaire. When supply and demand pressures are taken into account, a family most likely to be accepted received positive scores on six to ten of the original 12 scales and selected demographic variables.

In conclusion, caseworkers' evaluations of foster family applicants cannot be reliably predicted from characteristics of "ideal" foster families or characteristics of presently functioning good foster families when realistic pressures such as supply and demand are disregarded.

Wolins, M., "The Problems of Choice in Foster Home Finding," Social Work, IV, No. 2 (1959), pp. 40-48.

_____, "Workers' Decisions in Foster Home Finding," Child Welfare, XXXVIII, No. 9 (1959), pp. 12-17.

_____, Selecting Foster Parents (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963), 216 pp.

The Need for Foster Care

This study was undertaken to obtain a current picture of the need for foster care and the relation of available services to such need in the urban areas of the United States. Information was sought on all requests for foster care during a three-month period from child care agencies in seven communities differing widely in location, size economic level and available social welfare services. Caseworkers from 69 participating agencies completed questionnaires on 1488 requests, giving information about the child, his family, and the disposition of the request for foster care.

The cases were divided into eight "problem groups" on the basis of the primary stated reason for the request. These groups were, in order of frequency: 1) deviant parental behavior toward the child; 2) out-of-wedlock infant; 3) child's behavioral problem; 4) psycho-social stress; 5) parental incapacity; 6) socioeconomic stress; 7) unwed mother; and 8) child's incapacity.

Wide variations were found among the cities in the need for care, the overall availability of child welfare services, the relative emphasis on institutional and non-institutional services, and the respective roles of governmental and non-governmental agencies in the provision of service. The findings suggest that requests for service are influenced by the services that are available, and so may not reflect actual need.

The "problem groups" varied markedly in a number of dimensions relating to characteristics of the children, the socioeconomic status and the composition of their families, and the disposition of the placement requests. For instance, three-quarters of the children were white, but the proportion of non-white children was higher in three groups -- deviant parental behavior toward the child, parental incapacity, and socioeconomic stress. Underrepresentation of non-whites in other groups may have reflected lesser availability of service rather than lesser need.

Although the majority of the children were white and were from economically independent families, only one-fifth were living with both parents at the time of the request for care, and most of the families had modest incomes, many below the poverty level. The out-of-wedlock infants, the unwed mothers, and the children referred because of behavior problems tended to come from more advantaged backgrounds, while children referred because of deviant parental behavior, parental incapacity or socioeconomic stress came from the more deprived families.

Caseworkers thought that ideally a third of the children should remain in or return to their own homes, but this choice was least often feasible, presumably because of the lack of such supports as adequate financial assistance, homemaker service, day care or casework. Foster homes and normal child care institutions were usually available, not only as the placement of choice but as a second best solution when care in own home or adoptive placement was not practical. Adoptive placements frequently could not be made, particularly for the non-white child. Placement in special institutions was carried out

in most of the child behavior and incapacity cases for which it was designated as desirable. Maternity home placement, the usual choice for the unwed mother, could be implemented in almost every instance. In all, two-thirds of the ideal decisions were carried out. Within the individual problem groups, the decision about placement commonly varied according to the ethnic and socioeconomic background of the child rather than being related entirely to his needs.

The most salient conclusion of the study has implications for the prevention of child placement. In the opinion of the caseworkers many of the requests for foster care could have been obviated, and even at the point of the request the caseworkers still considered it best in many cases for the child to remain in his own home. However, lack of community supportive and other social services necessitated placement.

The Need for Foster Care (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1969).

RESIDENTIAL TREATMENT

Residential Treatment for Emotionally Disturbed Children

Reid and Hagan's descriptive study of 12 residential treatment centers focused on administrative and organizational issues. Each chapter reports on one center, presenting information that had been recorded on schedules prepared for reviewing case records and other documents. In addition, direct observation of each center and interviews with staff members provided further material. The aspects of residential treatment discussed include: form of organization; building and grounds; intake policies and procedures; children in residence at the time of the study; staff; treatment (individual psychotherapy, daily routine, recreation, educational program, work with parents, etc.); discharge and after-care; training; research; and costs and sources of support. The authors attempted no evaluation, but each chapter concludes with a program critique by the center's own director.

Reid, J. and Hagan, H., Residential Treatment of Emotionally Disturbed Children (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1952), 313 pp.

Cost of Care in a Children's Institution

Wolins developed a cost analysis system for relating cost of care in a children's institution to each type of program, service, and child. The procedure was tested on one institution to measure present costs and to predict future costs for purposes of financial and service planning. The primary objective of this functional or performance budgeting procedure is to measure variable costs that are different for each child. Fixed costs, such as housing and food, are simpler to compute, since they remain almost constant for each child.

The principal services offered by the institution are: residential care (food, shelter, clothing, cottage staff, school, etc.) accounting for 64% of total expenditures; treatment services (casework, psychiatry, etc.) accounting for 18% of total expenditures; and administration accounting for 18% of total expenditures. The course of a child's experience with the institution is further sub-divided into work units (screening, intake, pre-admission, admission, institutional adjustment, treatment, discharge, and aftercare). Time studies were made over a three-month period for each work unit in relation to each type of child and each type of staff member to allocate costs and staff time. Special emphasis was given to the treatment phase, the longest and costliest work unit.

The population of the institution under study consisted of an average of 190 children referred primarily for emotional illness. A child was more likely to be male and between 10 and 15 years of age. The children lived in a series of cottages presided over by cottage parents who were the "hub of institutional life" accounting for one-sixth of total expenditures. Social workers played a crucial role in the disposition of each case from intake to discharge, but many children were also seen by psychiatrists and psychologists.

The major part of the report discusses the variety, quantity, and costs of treatment services required by children with various characteristics. Cost of care was more likely to be higher for children with the following characteristics: severely disturbed; psychotic; low I.Q. (65-84); latency age; female; insecure; follower; referred by a social agency; intact family; upper-middle-glass; foreign born. These children required more time, in varying amounts, from social workers, psychiatrists, psychologists, remedial teachers, cottage parents, and resident supervisors.

It was found that prediction of cost of care and treatment can be improved by taking into account one or more characteristics of a child rather than using the population mean. The best prediction is achieved by using three characteristics (problems of child and family, parental unit, and functioning intelligence). Wolins believes that success in reducing error in estimating cost of care may be largely attributed to the practice of differential diagnosis and treatment. However, differences in cost cannot be accounted for merely by differences in characteristics of children. Staff characteristics also contribute to these differences. For example, experienced social workers are less costly than inexperienced social workers, since they require less supervision and can devote more time to direct work.

Wolins, M., "Care and Cost in an Institution for Children," Child Welfare, XXXVI, No. 3 (1957), pp. 8-13.

_____, "Cost of Care in a Children's Institution," in Cost Analysis in Child Welfare Services, Children's Bureau Publication No. 366 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1958), pp. 139-380.

The Residential Treatment Center: Children, Programs, and Costs

This report is an expansion and updating of Reid and Hagan's earlier study (1952), especially in the area of cost analysis. Twenty-one residential treatment centers (18 private and 3 public) and two day schools (both private) serving 970 emotionally disturbed children participated in a survey of their children, programs and costs during one fiscal or calendar year between 1959 and 1961. Information was obtained from structured interviews regarding programs and facilities, questionnaires on each child and each staff member, and administrative questionnaires. The day schools were included to provide cost comparisons with the residential treatment centers.

The residential treatment centers engage in milieu therapy, which includes individual therapy for each child, an education program, recreation, medical attention, etc., to prepare each child for return to his home and community. The centers also provide therapy or casework for the parents, inservice training for staff, student training, and outpatient services. Wide variations exist in size, program, etc., among the different centers.

The majority of children were male (75%), white (85%) with a median age of 12 years. Twice as many were between 10 and 14 years old than expected from the U. S. population, but the children admitted at a younger age tended to remain longer. Most children were discharged within a year, but males were more likely to remain longer. Many were behind in grade level and 40%, again more males, required individual tutoring. More than half of the children had experienced some form of therapy before admission. The majority came from intact middle-class families.

In one year only one out of six applicants was admitted into a residential treatment center, and one out of three was accepted by a day school. However, one center accounted for 65% of the rejections, mainly because of lack of space. Other reasons included policy rules (age, I.Q., etc.) and recommendations for more appropriate plans.

The mainsources of funds were public bodies (55%), federated fund-raising, and fees. Most centers reported little or no excess income but stated that their financial situations were improving. Residential child care staff was the principal "per-child-year" expenditure in many centers, followed by 1) food, clothing, and shelter, 2) clinical programs, e.g., social work therapy, and 3) administration. Teachers were often donated by local public school systems.

Wolins' cost analysis method was utilized and, in addition, a special typology was developed for purposes of this study to secure costs by type of child based upon eight types derived from a child's degree of aggressive behavior, orientation to reality, and accessibility to treatment. The highest average costs "per-child-year" applied to disoriented children, especially those accessible to treatment. However, almost half of the children were classified as "type eight": less aggressive, moderately to well-oriented, and accessible. The major factor affecting the cost of residential treatment was the high ratio of professional staff to the number of children.

Staff turnover (as high as 41% for child care staff) and lack of training of child care staff were problems most often mentioned. However, in general, professional staff were young and well-educated.

As part of the study, a sample of board members, directors, and administrators were questioned on various issues. In general, they felt that there should be a greater emphasis on the prevention of emotional disorders in view of the high cost of residential treatment.

Hylton, L., The Residential Treatment Center -- Children, Programs, and Costs (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1964), 251 pp.

DAY CARE

The Day Care Project

The Day Care Project represents a study of various types of daytime child care arrangements utilized by working mothers in seven diverse communities across the U. S., including one rural county. Although emphasis was placed on the prevalence of and need for organized day care services, various types of facilities were examined to provide a proper context, and non-working mothers, as well as working mothers, were interviewed and comparisons made. The research was conducted in three stages.

Stage I focused on the knowledge and opinions of day care of selected groups of people who influence welfare policies, i.e., social workers, agency board members, clergymen, businessmen, labor officials, etc. The majority of the 2058 community respondents to a check-list questionnaire felt that there was some need for additional day care facilities, but they ranked this service low in comparison to other child welfare services. They tended to favor social agency auspices but advocated community responsibility only in hardship cases. The majority preferred individual, private arrangements with relatives or maids. Many were unfamiliar with day care facilities or viewed them as a service for the deprived and troubled. Finally, a negative attitude toward working mothers was prevalent.

Stage II, which represents the major portion of the final write-up, consisted of in-home interviews with random samples in each of the communities of working and non-working mothers with at least one child under 12 years old. The 2535 respondents answered check-list and open-ended questions on day care arrangements, child-rearing attitudes, roles of husband and wife in family activities, employment history, socioeconomic background, etc. The principal part of the interviews dealt with the types of arrangements used when the mother was away from her child during the day for whatever reason and the problems related to these arrangements.

In examining the factors influencing maternal employment it was found that a mother was more likely to work if any one of the following held true: residence in a rural community; low family income; low socioeconomic status; Negro; Jewish; divorced; college or postgraduate education; husband's income below average for his educational level; more education than husband. However, mothers from all backgrounds worked, and most came from normal, middle-class families. Types of occupations varied for each community.

Working mothers tended to be more planful and organized than non-working mothers, and they were generally less emotionally dependent upon their husbands. The boundary between working and non-working mothers was not rigid, since many non-working mothers planned eventually to seek employment and many working mothers hoped to stop working. In general, the rate of maternal employment was found to be increasing.

Types of child care arrangements varied with race, socioeconomic status, community, etc. The most frequent arrangement utilized by working mothers was in-home care by father or other relative. Negro mothers were more likely to use out-of-home arrangements, especially group care. They were also more interested in programs that provided opportunities for educational and socialization experiences for their children. Working mothers of all races from low socioeconomic backgrounds were more likely to depend upon relatives for the care of their children, whereas mothers of higher socioeconomic status tended to utilize out-of-home arrangements involving nonrelatives. Formal child care arrangements were the exception rather than the rule.

According to an index of dissatisfaction, working mothers were most satisfied with in-home care by relatives, neighbors, or babysitters; out-of-home care by relatives, nursery schools, and day care centers. The least satisfactory arrangement was in-home care by sibling or maid. Current arrangements for very young children were the most unsatisfactory. Dissatisfaction was experienced on all socioeconomic levels and for all races.

Almost half of the working mothers sampled said that they would consider using a day care center if it were available. This became less likely as socioeconomic status rose, but more likely for Negro mothers and for mothers dissatisfied with their present arrangements.

Stage III consisted of a survey of day care centers and related facilities, i.e., nursery schools, family day care homes and recreation facilities. Questionnaires were returned by 764 facilities on their type of service, auspices, hours, enrollment and staff. Of these facilities 284 responded to a more detailed questionnaire on the backgrounds of the children enrolled, problems and opinions on needs. In each community a random sample of facilities was directly observed and evaluated. In addition, the adequacy of the quantity and quality of facilities in each community was evaluated as well as the licensing laws and standards.

It was found that standards for day care were higher in the North than in the South; standards were higher for voluntary than for proprietary facilities; and nursery schools and family day care homes were primarily serving white children. There were many gaps in licensing coverage, especially of family day care homes, and it was concluded that more community support was needed to maintain higher standards and greater cooperation among the various day care facilities.

The most salient conclusion of the study was that day care programs and facilities are appropriate for normal children from normal families and that the emphasis should be on the child's developmental needs. At the time of the study many social workers and some social agencies viewed day care as a service for problem families and in fact day care is disproportionately utilized by poor, broken, and Negro families. Since working mothers come from diverse backgrounds representing all levels of society, programs should not focus on casework services forthe mothers but rather, should focus on the child's ability to adjust to and benefit from such a program.

Ruderman, F., "The Child Welfare League's Day Care Project: Research and Action," Child Welfare, XL, No. 6 (1961), pp. 24-27.

_____, Report on Stage I of the Day Care Project: Community Opinions on Day Care (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1962), 258 pp. (mimeo).

_____, Day Care Licensing Report: A Report of the Day Care Project (New York; Child Welfare League of America, 1964), 68 pp. (mimeo).

_____,"Day Care: A Challenge to Social Work," Child Welfare, XLIII, No. 3 (1964), pp. 117-123.

_____, Day Care and Related Facilities: A Report of Stage III of the Day Care Project (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1965), 158 pp. (mimeo).

_____, "Conceptualizing Needs for Day Care: Some Conclusions Drawn from the Child Welfare League Day Care Project," Child Welfare, XLIV, No. 4 (1965), pp. 207-213.

_____,"Conceptualization of Day Care for Children," American Journal of Public Health, LV, No. 9 (1965), pp. 1334-1335.

_____, Child Care and Working Mothers: A Study of Arrangements Made for Daytime Care of Children (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1968), 378 pp.

Emerson, L., "The League's Day Care Project: Some Findings to Guide the Community in Providing Day Care Services," Child Welfare, XLVIII (in press).

BEHAVIOR DISORDERS OF CHILDREN

Children in Residential Treatment Centers

Two studies grew out of the need for a concise descriptive classification of behavioral traits in children, especially children with behavioral disorders. In one study (1963) social workers, psychiatrists, psychologists, teachers, administrators, and non-professional child care workers rated 316 children living in ten residential treatment centers on 76 behavioral items, according to a five-point scale of degree of fregquency. A factor analysis of the responses yielded ten dimensions of behavioral disorder: physical aggression; sexual activity; intellectural inability; compulsive cleanliness; lethargy; self-destructiveness; unsociability; self-recklessness; stealing; and anxiety-neurotic items. These dimensions are by no means completely independent of one another, but rather show varying degrees of intercorrelation.

Multiple-rated cases were examined for inter-rater reliability. Administrators tended to perceive more behavioral pathology in the children than did social workers; social workers saw more pathology than did psychiatrists, psychologists, and teachers; and there were no gross differences in the ratings of social workers and child care workers.

No consistent relationships were found between certain background variables, i.e., age, sex, race, and I.Q. of child, and the ratings of behavioral disorder. The authors concluded that more extensive research was required.

Fanshel, D., Hylton, L., and Borgatta, E., "A Study of Behavioral Disorders or Children in Residential Treatment Centers," Journal of Psychological Studies, XIV, No. 1 (1963), pp. 1-23.

Children Known to Psychiatric Clinics

The second study (1965) utilized a modified form of the earlier behavior rating instrument on a sample of 593 children seen at 30 psychiatric outpatient clinics. Final factor analysis resulted in six independent clusters derived from 12 original clusters: Factor A included unsocialized behavior, defiance, and sex precociousness (acting-out behavior); Factor B included tension-anxiety and infantilism (lack of developmental progress); Factor C included over-cleanliness and sex inhibition (inhibited behavior); Factor D included lack of affection, deviance and motivational learning difficulty; Factor E included learning difficulty (manifest ability), motivational learning difficulty, and lack of responsibility; and Factor F included likability and responsibility. These factors represent general behavioral traits which may be useful for diagnostic and predictive purposes.

All 12 of the original factors were significantly related to a general rating of social-psychological disability of the child. There were small, but statistically significant relationships between race, socioeconomic status, sex and age and the twelve factors.

A second fucus of this study was the use of psychiatric out-patient clinics by adopted children. The results indicated that the "agency arrival rate" was higher for adopted children than might be expected for the general child population, but when selective variables, such as race, socioeconomic status, and prior contact with agencies, were taken into account, the apparent difference became of questionable significance. In terms of diagnosis, a smaller proportion of adopted children than non-adopted children in the sample were judged to be psychotic. There were significant differences between adopted and non-adopted children on four of the 12 factors; adopted children rated higher on defiance and lower on overcleanliness, sex inhibition, and responsibility.

Borgatta, E., and Fanshel, D., Behavioral Characteristics of Children Known to Psychiatric Out Patient Clinics (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1965), 40 pp.

SALARIES AND PERSONNEL

Salary Studies

Child Welfare League of America has conducted periodic surveys of prevailing salaries of personnel and related practices of its member agencies. Over the years salaries have been reported in various forms: actual salaries, ranges of minimum and maximum salaries, medians of minimum and maximum salaries. Comparisons by georaphic region, type of agency, and size of agency staff are generally included. Agencies are grouped as voluntary or local-public; and a third group, voluntary-day care, was used in the earlier studies. Statewide public agencies have been excluded.

Related practices reported in conjunction with some of the studies are increment policies, retirement planning, availability of scholarship aide, training, and number of vacancies. The 1966 study also reported the highest level of education attained by people in certain positions. Job descriptions have also been included.

There has been a general upward trend in salary levels but still not at a level warranted by the amount of professional training and/or amount of experience. Serious problems of staff shortage as well as staff turnover have been stressed by the agencies.

Appel, Y., Salaries in Child Welfare 1958 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1959), 79 pp.

_____, "Highlights from the League's Salary Survey," Child Welfare, XXXVIII, No. 5 (1959), pp. 26-31.

Colvin, R., Hylton, L., and Rothschild, B., Salaries and Manpower in Child Welfare 1966 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1967), 153 pp.

Data on Salaries in Child Care Agencies and Institutions (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1937), 11 pp. (Special Bulletin).

Fradkin, H., Salary Study 1960 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1961), 56 pp.

Gordon, H., Salary Practices 1951 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1952), 18 pp.

_____, Salary Trends 1952 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1953), 16 pp.

_____, Salary Trends 1954 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1954), 67 pp.

Hylton, L., Salary Study 1963 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1964), 75 pp.

_____, Salary Study 1967 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1967), 47 pp.

Hylton, L., and Rothschild, B., Salary Study 1968 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1968), 48 pp.

Salary Study 1969 (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1969), 33 pp.

Study of Staff Losses in Child Welfare and Family Service Agencies

The U. S. Children's Bureau in cooperation with Child Welfare League of America and Family Service Association of America surveyed staff turnover during 1957 in public and voluntary child welfare and family service agencies. The bulk of the study concerns full-time social workers, caseworkers, supervisors, and directors who were working at the beginning of the study year (1957). Reports were submitted on each resignee by the agency and by the resignee himself.

Almost one-quarter of the average number of full-time professional staff had left the employment of their agencies by the end of the year. One-half the sum of the numbers on duty at the beginning and at the end of the study year was considered an "average" number employed during the year. The average turnover rate for caseworkers was even higher (34%). Small voluntary agencies sustained the greatest staff losses. An individual with any one of the following characteristics was more likely to resign: male; caseworker; age under 26 years; previously married male; married female; untrained; employed less than two years; worker in family service agency. The resignation rate for all those employed at the beginning of the year was 17%, and 21% for caseworkers.

The most frequent primary reasons reported by the agencies were: maternity, moving, demands at home, better job, and salary. The employees reported most of the same reasons but in different order of frequency: better job, mobing, maternity, dissatisfaction with supervision, and salary. Females tended to check the non-job related reasons whereas males were more concerned with better job, salary and advancement. Partical or complete agreement between agency and resignee occurred for two-thirds of thecases, especially for non-job related reasons.

More than half of the resignees were employed in new positions by the end of the study year, but almost three-quarters of these workers were now working in fields of social work other than child welfare or family service.

The author concluded that staff losses could be partially remedied by offering higher salaries and by encouraging greater public support and recognition of social workers and the important needs they serve in the community. He also stated that supervisory practices should be modified to decrease the dissatisfaction expressed in this study, especially by women.

Tollen, W., Study of Staff Losses in Child Welfare and Family Service Agencies, Children's Bureau Publication No. 383 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1960) 193 pp.

Projected Staff Needs

Predictions of staff needs in public and voluntary child welfare agencies were based on the U. S. Census population projections through 1985 and the average caseload per direct service caseworker. Other professional staff positions were also projected for these agencies. In addition, estimates of staff for the Head Start program and for children's institutions were derived.

It was estimated that by 1985 approximately one million children will need child welfare services. According to the author's predictions, public agencies will require 55% more direct service caseworkers in 1985 than in 1963 and voluntary agencies will require 174% more direct service staff in 1985 than in 1960 to serve these children. These estimates are conservative, since changes in rates are not taken into account.

Hylton, L., "Projected Social Welfare Staff Needs," Child Welfare, XLV, No. 2 (1966), pp. 89-95.